

AN INVOLUTION ON BICUBIC MAPS AND  $\beta(0, 1)$ -TREES

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ABSTRACT. Bicubic maps are in bijection with  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees. We introduce two new ways of decomposing  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees. Using this we define an endofunction on  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees, and thus also on bicubic maps. We show that this endofunction is in fact an involution. As a consequence we are able to prove some surprising results regarding the joint equidistribution of certain pairs of statistics on trees and maps. Finally, we conjecture the number of fixed points of the involution.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

A *planar map* is a connected graph embedded in the sphere with no edge-crossings, up to continuous deformations. A map has *vertices*, *edges*, and *faces* (disjoint simply connected domains). The maps we consider shall be *rooted*, meaning that a directed edge has been distinguished as the root. The face that lies to the right of the root edge while following its orientation is the *root face*, whereas the vertex from which the root stems is the *root vertex*. When drawing a planar map on the plane, we usually follow the convention to choose the outer (unbounded) face as the root face. Tutte [7, Chapter 10] founded the enumeration theory of planar maps in a series of papers in the 1960s (see [6] and the references in [2]).

A planar map in which each vertex is of degree 3 is *cubic*; it is *bicubic* if, in addition, it is bipartite, that is, if its vertices can be colored using two colors, say, black and white, so that adjacent vertices are assigned different colors.

The smallest bicubic map has two vertices and three edges joining them. It is well-known that the faces of a bicubic map can be colored using three colors so that adjacent faces have distinct colors, say, colors 1, 2 and 3, in a counterclockwise order around white vertices. We will assume that the root vertex is black and the root face has color 3. There are exactly three different bicubic maps with 6 edges and they are given in Figure 1.

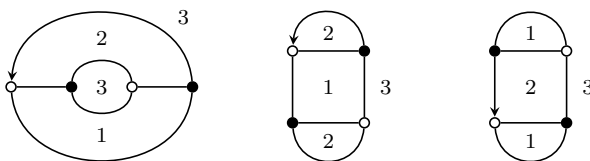


FIGURE 1. All bicubic maps with 4 vertices.

The number of bicubic maps with  $2n$  vertices was given by Tutte [6]:

$$\frac{3 \cdot 2^{n-1} (2n)!}{n!(n+2)!}.$$

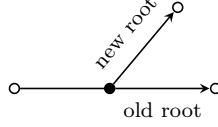
*Key words and phrases.* planar map, bicubic map, description tree,  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree, statistics, equidistribution.

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Let  $M$  be a bicubic map. For  $i = 1, 2, 3$ , let  $\mathcal{F}_i(M)$  be the set of  $i$ -colored faces of  $M$ . Let  $R_1 \in \mathcal{F}_1(M)$ ,  $R_2 \in \mathcal{F}_2(M)$ , and  $R_3 \in \mathcal{F}_3(M)$  be the three faces around the root vertex; in particular,  $R_3$  is the root face. We shall now define two statistics on bicubic maps:

$\text{f1r3}(M)$  is the number of faces in  $\mathcal{F}_1(M)$  that touch  $R_3$ ;  
 $\text{f3r2}(M)$  is the number of faces in  $\mathcal{F}_3(M)$  that touch  $R_2$ .

Consider the following transformation  $\phi$  on bicubic maps. Recolor the faces by the mapping  $\{1 \mapsto 2, 2 \mapsto 3, 3 \mapsto 1\}$ . Keep the colors of the vertices. Keep, also, the root vertex, but let the new root edge be the first edge in counterclockwise direction from the old root edge:



It is easy to see that  $\phi$  is a bijection; indeed,  $\phi^3$  is the identity transformation. Moreover,  $\phi$  establishes the following result.

**Proposition 1.** *For any positive integer  $n$ , we have*

$$\sum_M x^{\text{f1r3}(M)} = \sum_M x^{\text{f3r2}(M)},$$

where both sums are over all bicubic maps on  $n$  vertices. In other words, the statistics  $\text{f1r3}$  and  $\text{f3r2}$  are equidistributed.

In this paper we show the following stronger result.

**Theorem 2.** *For any positive integer  $n$ , we have*

$$\sum_M x^{\text{f1r3}(M)} y^{\text{f3r2}(M)} = \sum_M x^{\text{f3r2}(M)} y^{\text{f1r3}(M)},$$

where both sums are over all bicubic maps on  $n$  vertices. In other words, the two pairs of statistics  $(\text{f1r3}, \text{f3r2})$  and  $(\text{f3r2}, \text{f1r3})$  are jointly equidistributed.

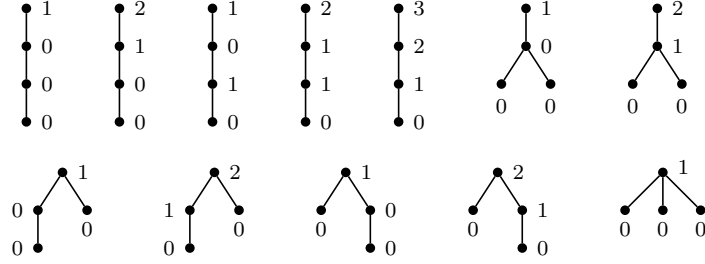
To prove Theorem 2 we first translate the statement to a corresponding statement on so called  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees; there is a one-to-one correspondence [3] between bicubic maps and such trees. To prove the equidistribution we then define an endofunction on the trees, and prove that it is an involution that respects the statistics. We also conjecture the number of fixed points of the involution. The proof that the endofunction is an involution is the most difficult part of this paper.

## 2. $\beta(0, 1)$ -TREES

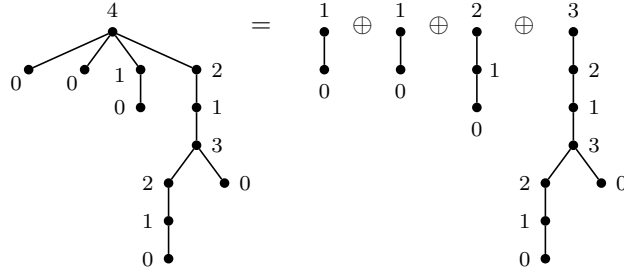
Cori et al. [3] introduced description trees to give a framework for recursively decomposing several families of planar maps. A  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree is a particular kind of description tree; it is defined as a rooted plane tree whose nodes are labeled with nonnegative integers such that

- (1) leaves have label 0;
- (2) the label of the root is one more than the sum of its children's labels;
- (3) the label of any other node exceeds the sum of its children's labels by at most one.

The unique  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree with exactly one node (and no edges) will be called *trivial*. Any other  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree will be called *nontrivial*. In Figure 2 we have listed all  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees on 4 nodes. Let  $\text{root}(T)$  denote the root label of  $T$ , and let  $\text{sub}(T)$  denote the number of children of the root. We say that a  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $T$  is *reducible* if

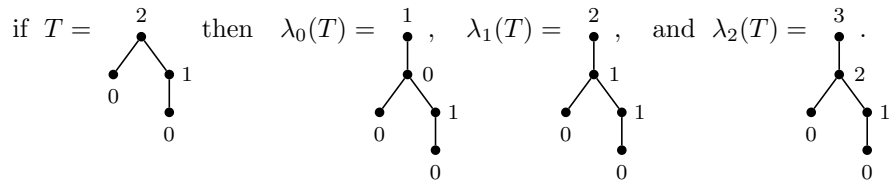
FIGURE 2. All  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees on 4 nodes.

$\text{sub}(T) > 1$ , and *irreducible* otherwise. Note that we can write any reducible tree as a sum of irreducible ones. See Figure 3 for an example. In general, the subtrees of

FIGURE 3. Decomposing a reducible  $\beta(0,1)$ -tree.

$U \oplus V$  are those of  $U$  followed by those of  $V$ , and  $\text{root}(U \oplus V) = \text{root}(U) + \text{root}(V) - 1$ .

Note also that any irreducible tree with at least one edge is of the form  $\lambda_i(T)$ , where  $0 \leq i \leq \text{root}(T)$  and  $\lambda_i(T)$  is obtained from  $T$  by joining a new root via an edge to the old root; the old root is given the label  $i$ , and the new root is given the label  $i + 1$ . For instance,



Let us now introduce a few more statistics on  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees. By the *rightmost path* we shall mean the path from the root to the rightmost leaf. We define  $\text{rzero}(T)$  as the number of zeros on the rightmost path. By definition,  $\text{rzero}(\bullet) = 0$ .

A node is called *excessive* if its label exceeds the sum of its children's labels; it is called *moderate* otherwise. In particular, a leaf is a moderate node and the root is an excessive node. Assuming that  $T$  is nontrivial, we let  $\text{rmod}(T)$  be the number of moderate nodes on the rightmost path of  $T$ . For the case of the trivial tree we define  $\text{rmod}(\bullet) = 1$ .

A node on the rightmost path, possibly the root, will be called *open* if its rightmost child (the child on the rightmost path), if any, is neither excessive nor a leaf. In particular, the rightmost leaf is always an open node. Let  $\text{open}(T)$  denote the number of open nodes in  $T$ .

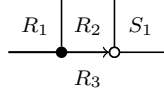
For the tree  $T$  in Figure 3 we see that  $\text{root}(T) = 4$ ,  $\text{sub}(T) = 4$ ,  $\text{rzero}(T) = 1$  and  $\text{rmod}(T) = \text{open}(T) = 2$ . That  $\text{rmod}(T)$  and  $\text{open}(T)$  coincide is not a coincidence as demonstrated in the proof of the following lemma.

**Lemma 3.** *For any  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $T$  we have  $\text{rmod}(T) = \text{open}(T)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\text{rpath}(T)$  be the number of nodes on the rightmost path, and let  $\text{rex}(T)$  be the number of excessive nodes below the root on the rightmost path. We have  $\text{open}(T) = \text{rpath}(T) - \text{rex}(T) - 1$ , where the  $-1$  accounts for the parent of the rightmost leaf. We also have  $\text{rpath}(T) = \text{rmod}(T) + \text{rex}(T) + 1$ , where the  $+1$  accounts for the root. The claim follows.  $\square$

### 3. BICUBIC MAPS AS $\beta(0, 1)$ -TREES

Following [2] we will now describe a bijection between bicubic maps and  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees. Let us first recall some definitions from the introduction. For any bicubic map  $M$  and  $i = 1, 2, 3$ , let  $\mathcal{F}_i(M)$  be the set of  $i$ -colored faces of  $M$ . Let  $R_1 \in \mathcal{F}_1(M)$ ,  $R_2 \in \mathcal{F}_2(M)$ , and  $R_3 \in \mathcal{F}_3(M)$  be the three faces around the root vertex; in particular,  $R_3$  is the root face. In addition, let  $S_1 \in \mathcal{F}_1(M)$  be the 1-colored face that meets the vertex that the root edge points at:



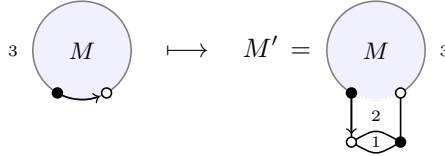
Let us say that a face touches another face  $k$  times if there are  $k$  different edges each belonging to the boundaries of both faces. Define the following two statistics:

- $\text{f3r12}(M)$  is the number of faces in  $\mathcal{F}_3(M)$  that touch both  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ ;
- $\text{s1r3}(M)$  is the number of times  $S_1$  touches  $R_3$ .

We say that  $M$  is *irreducible* if  $\text{s1r3}(M) = 1$ , or, in other words, if  $S_1$  touches  $R_3$  exactly once; we say that  $M$  is *reducible* otherwise. We shall introduce operations on bicubic maps that correspond to  $\lambda_i$  and  $\oplus$  of  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees. This will induce the desired bijection  $\psi$  between bicubic maps and  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees.

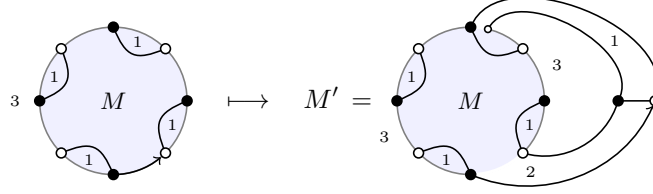
To construct an irreducible bicubic map based on  $M$ , and having two more vertices than  $M$ , we proceed in one of two ways. The first way (1) corresponds to  $\lambda_i(T)$  when  $i = \text{root}(T)$ ; the second way (2) corresponds to  $\lambda_i(T)$  when  $0 \leq i < \text{root}(T)$ .

- (1) We create a new 1-colored face touching the root face exactly once, so  $\text{f1r3}(M') = \text{f1r3}(M) + 1$ , by removing the root edge from  $M$  and adding a digon that we connect to the map as in the picture below.



- (2) Assuming that  $\text{f1r3}(M) = k$ ; that is,  $M$  has  $k$  1-colored faces touching the root face, we can create an irreducible map  $M'$  such that  $\text{f1r3}(M') = i$ , where  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . To this end, we remove the root edge from  $M$ . Starting at the root node and counting in *clockwise direction*, we also remove the first edge of the  $i$ -th 1-colored face that touches the root face. In the picture below we schematically illustrate the case  $i = 3$ . Next we add two more

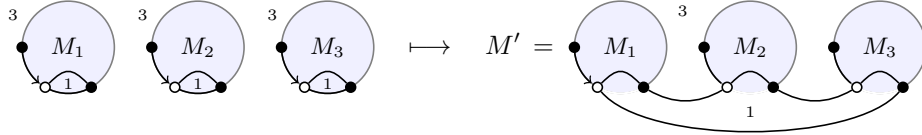
vertices and respective edges, and assign a new root as shown in the figure.



Any irreducible bicubic map on  $n+2$  vertices can be constructed from some bicubic map on  $n$  vertices by applying operation (1) or (2) above.

We shall now describe how to create a reducible map based on irreducible maps  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_k$ . An illustration for  $k=3$  can be found below. This corresponds to the  $\oplus$ -operation on  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees.

- (3) We begin by lining up the maps  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_k$ . Next, in each map  $M_i$ , we remove the first edge (in *counter-clockwise direction*) from the root edge on the root face. Then we connect the maps as shown in the figure, and define the root edge of the obtained map to be the root edge of  $M_1$ .



Any reducible bicubic map on  $n$  vertices can be constructed by applying the above operation (3) to some ordered list of irreducible bicubic maps whose total number of vertices is  $n$ .

By defining operations on bicubic maps corresponding to the operations  $\lambda_i$  and  $\oplus$  we have now completed the definition of the bijection  $\psi$  between bicubic maps and  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees. Two examples of applying  $\psi$  can be found in the appendix.

The following proposition will be needed later and can easily be proved using induction.

**Proposition 4.** *Let  $M$  be a bicubic map, and let  $\text{one}(M) = |\mathcal{F}_1(M)|$  be the number of 1-colored faces in  $M$ . Let  $T$  be a  $\beta(0,1)$ -tree, and let  $\text{exc}(T)$  denote the number of excessive nodes in  $T$ . Let  $\psi$  be the map from bicubic maps to  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees described above. Finally, assume that  $T = \psi(M)$ . Then*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{exc}(T) &= \text{one}(M); \\ \text{root}(T) &= \text{f1r3}(M); \\ \text{rmod}(T) &= \text{f3r2}(M); \\ \text{rzero}(T) &= \text{f3r12}(M); \\ \text{sub}(T) &= \text{s1r3}(M). \end{aligned}$$

#### 4. NEW WAYS TO DECOMPOSE $\beta(0,1)$ -TREES

For any  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k$  define

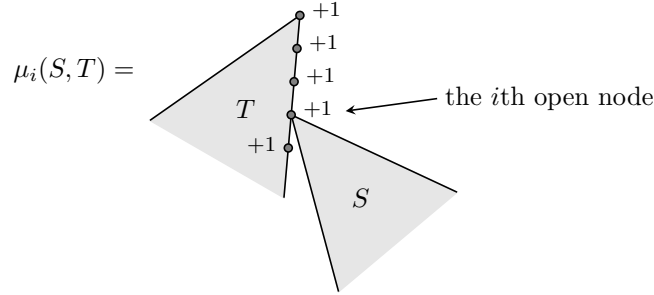
$$\rho(T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k) = \lambda_0(T_1) \oplus \lambda_0(T_2) \oplus \dots \oplus \lambda_0(T_k).$$

Let  $S$  and  $T$  be  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees. Assume that  $\text{root}(S) = 1$  and that  $T$  is nontrivial. Let  $i$  be an integer such that  $1 \leq i \leq \text{open}(T)$ , and let  $x$  denote the  $i$ th open node on the rightmost path of  $T$ . Also, let  $y$  be  $x$  if  $x$  is a leaf and let  $y$  be the rightmost

child of  $x$  otherwise. We define  $\mu_i(S, T)$  as the  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree obtained by identifying  $x$  with the root of  $S$ , keeping the label of  $x$ , and then adding one to each node on the rightmost path of  $T$  between the root and  $y$ . For instance,

$$\mu_2 \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{Tree 1: } \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 0 \quad 0 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 0 \quad 0 \end{array} , \quad \text{Tree 2: } \begin{array}{c} 3 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad 1 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 0 \quad 0 \end{array} \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 3 \quad 2 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \quad \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \quad \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \end{array}$$

Schematically,



For convenience we shall also define that  $\mu_1(S, \bullet) = S$ .

Note that any  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $U$  with  $\text{root}(U) = 1$  is of the form  $\rho(T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k)$  for some  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k$ . On the other hand, any  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $U$  with  $\text{root}(U) > 1$  can be written  $U = \mu_i(S, T)$ , where  $\text{root}(S) = 1$  and  $T$  is nontrivial. Indeed, the node we call  $x$  above is the parent node of the first node labelled 0 on the right path of  $U$ , and knowing  $x$  we trivially get  $S$  and  $T$ .

Thus we can completely decompose any  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree in terms of  $\rho$  and  $\mu_i$ . As an example, the tree from Figure 3 can be written

$$\mu_2(\rho[\bullet], \mu_1(\rho[\mu_2(\rho[\bullet], \mu_1(\rho[\rho[\bullet]], \rho[\bullet])], \mu_1(\rho[\bullet], \rho[\bullet, \bullet, \rho[\bullet]])))).$$

We shall now define two additional operations  $\sigma$  and  $\nu_i$  on  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees that in a sense are dual to  $\rho$  and  $\mu_i$ . We start with  $\sigma$ :

**Definition 1.** For  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees  $T_1, \dots, T_k$  define

$$\sigma(T_1, \dots, T_k) = \mu_1(\rho(T_{k-1}, \dots, T_1, \bullet), T_k).$$

Let  $S$  and  $T$  be  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees. Assume that  $\text{open}(S) = 1$  and that  $T$  is nontrivial. Let  $i$  be an integer such that  $1 \leq i \leq \text{root}(T)$  and let  $x$  denote the rightmost leaf of  $S$ . Define  $\nu_i(S, T)$  as the  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree obtained by identifying  $x$  with the root of  $T$ , keeping the (zero) label of  $x$ , and then adding  $i - 1$  to each node on the rightmost path of  $S$  between the root and  $x$ . For instance,

$$\nu_2 \left( \begin{array}{c} \text{Tree 1: } \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 1 \quad 0 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 0 \quad 0 \end{array} , \quad \text{Tree 2: } \begin{array}{c} 3 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad 1 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 0 \quad 0 \end{array} \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{c} 3 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 2 \quad 1 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \quad \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 0 \quad 0 \quad 2 \quad 1 \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \quad \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \end{array}$$

For convenience we shall also define that  $\nu_1(S, \bullet) = S$ .

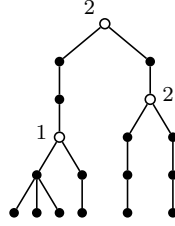
Note that any  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $U$  with  $\text{open}(U) = 1$  is of the form  $\sigma(T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k)$  for some  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k$ , and any  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $U$  with  $\text{open}(U) > 1$  can

be written  $U = \nu_i(S, T)$ , where  $\text{open}(S) = 1$  and  $T$  is nontrivial. Again, using the tree from Figure 3 as an example we have

$$\nu_2(\sigma[\sigma[\nu_1(\sigma[\bullet, \bullet, \bullet], \sigma[\bullet])]], \sigma[\nu_2(\sigma[\sigma[\bullet]], \sigma[\sigma[\bullet]])]).$$

## 5. BICOLORED TREES

If we look at the parse tree of an expression of a  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree in terms of  $\sigma$  and  $\nu_i$  (or  $\rho$  and  $\lambda_i$ ) we arrive at a new tree. For instance, writing the tree from Figure 3 in terms of  $\sigma$  and  $\nu_i$ , as above, we arrive at



where an internal black node corresponds to  $\sigma$  and a white node labeled  $i$  corresponds to  $\nu_i$ .

Let  $\mathcal{T}$  denote the set of trees that can be obtained from  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees in this manner. Then it is not hard to see that  $\mathcal{T}$  has the following recursive characterization. A member of  $\mathcal{T}$  is a rooted plane tree on white and black nodes such that either the root is black and is connected to a possibly empty list of trees in  $\mathcal{T}$ , or the root is white, has a label  $i$ , is connected to exactly two trees  $T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ , and  $1 \leq i \leq \kappa(T_2)$ , where  $\kappa$  is defined by recursion:  $\kappa$  of a leaf is 0;  $\kappa$  of a black node connected to  $T_1, \dots, T_k$  is  $1 + \kappa(T_k)$ ; and  $\kappa$  of a white node labeled  $i$ , connected to  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ , is  $i - 1 + \kappa(T_1)$ . If, in addition, we define that the *weight* of a tree in  $\mathcal{T}$  is the number of black nodes minus the number of white nodes, then we have established that there is a one-to-one correspondence between  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees on  $n$  nodes and trees in  $\mathcal{T}$  of weight  $n$ .

In the next section we shall define an endofunction on  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees. One way to understand this endofunction is that we map a  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $T$  to a  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $T'$  if the  $(\sigma, \nu_i)$  parse tree of  $T$  is the same as the  $(\rho, \lambda_i)$  parse tree of  $T'$ . We will prove that this endofunction is an involution.

## 6. AN INVOLUTION ON $\beta(0, 1)$ -TREES

The following three lemmas are immediate from the definitions of  $\rho$ ,  $\mu_i$ ,  $\sigma$  and  $\nu_i$ ; they will be used in the proof of Lemma 8.

**Lemma 5.** *For all  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees  $T_1, \dots, T_k$  we have*

$$\rho(T_1, \dots, T_k) = \nu_1(\sigma(T_{k-1}, \dots, T_1, \bullet), T_k).$$

Note the similarity between Lemma 5 and Definition 1.

**Lemma 6.** *Let  $R$ ,  $S$  and  $T$  be  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees. If  $\text{open}(R) = \text{root}(S) = 1$ , and  $T$  is nontrivial, then, for integers  $i \geq 1$  and  $j \geq 1$ , we have*

$$\nu_{i+1}(R, \mu_j(S, T)) = \mu_{j+1}(S, \nu_i(R, T)).$$

**Lemma 7.** *Let  $R$ ,  $S$  and  $T$  be  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees. If  $\text{root}(R) = \text{open}(R) = 1$ , then*

$$\mu_1(\nu_1(R, S), T) = \nu_1(\mu_1(R, T), S).$$

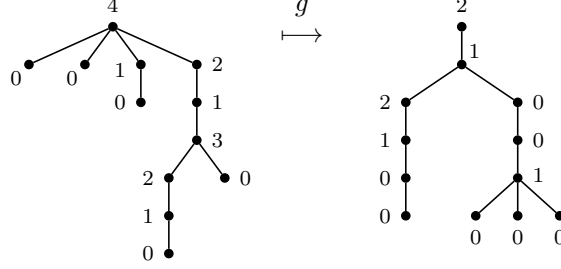
**Definition 2.** Let  $T_1, \dots, T_k$ ,  $S$  and  $T$  be  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees, and assume  $\text{root}(S) = 1$ . Define the map  $g$  on  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees of size  $n$  by

$$(1) \quad g(\bullet) = \bullet;$$

- (2)  $g(\rho(T_1, \dots, T_k)) = \sigma(g(T_1), \dots, g(T_k))$ ;
- (3)  $g(\mu_i(S, T)) = \nu_i(g(S), g(T))$ .

Note that there is a subtlety in this definition. In case (3), we apply  $\nu_i$  to  $g(S)$ , so we need to make sure that  $\text{open}(g(S)) = 1$ . But we are fine because, as  $\text{root}(S) = 1$  then  $S$  is  $\rho(T_1, \dots, T_k)$ , so to compute  $g(S)$  we would use case (2) and the image under  $\sigma$  of any tree has just one open node.

Here is an example of applying  $g$ :



For a larger example see the appendix, where two  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees (and associated bicubic maps) corresponding to each other under  $g$  are given.

**Lemma 8.** *If  $T_1, \dots, T_k, S$  and  $T$  are  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees, and  $\text{open}(S) = 1$ , then*

- (1)  $g(\sigma(T_1, \dots, T_k)) = \rho(g(T_1), \dots, g(T_k))$ ;
- (2)  $g(\nu_i(S, T)) = \mu_i(g(S), g(T))$ .

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 g(\sigma(T_1, \dots, T_k)) &= g(\mu_1(\rho(T_{k-1}, \dots, T_1, \bullet), T_k)) && \text{by Definition 1} \\
 &= \nu_1(g(\rho(T_{k-1}, \dots, T_1, \bullet)), g(T_k)) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
 &= \nu_1(\sigma(g(T_{k-1}), \dots, g(T_1), \bullet), g(T_k)) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
 &= \rho(g(T_1), \dots, g(T_k)) && \text{by Lemma 5}
 \end{aligned}$$

which proves (1). To prove (2) we first note that  $\text{root}(\nu_i(S, T)) = 1$  if, and only if,  $\text{root}(S) = 1$  and  $i = 1$ . Accordingly, the proof of (2) will be split into three cases:

- (a)  $i = 1$  and  $\text{root}(S) = 1$ ;
- (b)  $i = 1$  and  $\text{root}(S) > 1$ ;
- (c)  $i > 1$ .

Case (a): By assumption,  $\text{open}(S) = 1$ ; if also  $\text{root}(S) = 1$ , then  $S$  must be of the form  $S = \sigma(S_1, \dots, S_{\ell-1}, \bullet)$  for some  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees  $S_1, \dots, S_{\ell-1}$ , and thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 \nu_1(S, T) &= \nu_1(\sigma(S_1, \dots, S_{\ell-1}, \bullet), T) \\
 &= \rho(S_{\ell-1}, \dots, S_1, T). && \text{by Lemma 5}
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
 g(\nu_1(S, T)) &= \sigma(g(S_{\ell-1}), \dots, g(S_1), g(T)) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
 &= \mu_1(\rho(g(S_1), \dots, g(S_{\ell-1}), \bullet), g(T)) && \text{by Definition 1} \\
 &= \mu_1(g(\sigma(S_1, \dots, S_{\ell-1}, \bullet), g(T)) && \text{by (1)} \\
 &= \mu_1(g(S), g(T)).
 \end{aligned}$$

Case (b): Since  $\text{root}(S) > 1$  there are  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees  $U$  and  $V$ , and an integer  $j$ , such that  $\text{root}(U) = 1$ ,  $V$  is nontrivial, and  $S = \mu_j(U, V)$ . By assumption  $\text{open}(S) = 1$ . Moreover,

$$\text{open}(S) = \text{open}(\mu_j(U, V)) = \text{open}(U) + j - 1$$



and hence  $\text{open}(U) = 1$  and  $j = 1$ ; thus we can use Lemma 7. The proof now proceeds by structural induction (the base case is trivial):

$$\begin{aligned}
g(\nu_1(S, T)) &= g(\nu_1(\mu_1(U, V), T)) \\
&= g(\mu_1(\nu_1(U, T), V)) && \text{by Lemma 7} \\
&= \nu_1(g(\nu_1(U, T)), g(V)) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
&= \nu_1(\mu_1(g(U), g(T)), g(V)) && \text{by induction} \\
&= \mu_1(\nu_1(g(U), g(V)), g(T)) && \text{by Lemma 7} \\
&= \mu_1(g(\mu_1(U, V)), g(T)) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
&= \mu_1(g(S), g(T)).
\end{aligned}$$

Case (c): If  $i > 1$ , then  $\text{root}(T) > 1$  and we can write  $T = \mu_j(U, V)$  for some  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees  $U$  and  $V$  with  $\text{root}(U) = 1$  and  $V$  nontrivial. We can now proceed by either using structural induction or induction on  $i$ , the base case  $i = 1$  being provided by cases (a) and (b) above:

$$\begin{aligned}
g(\nu_i(S, T)) &= g(\nu_i(S, \mu_j(U, V))) \\
&= g(\mu_{j+1}(U, \nu_{i-1}(S, V))) && \text{by Lemma 6} \\
&= \nu_{j+1}(g(U), g(\nu_{i-1}(S, V))) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
&= \nu_{j+1}(g(U), \mu_{i-1}(g(S), g(V))) && \text{by induction} \\
&= \mu_i(g(S), \nu_j(g(U), g(V))) && \text{by Lemma 6} \\
&= \mu_i(g(S), g(\mu_j(U, V))) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
&= \mu_i(g(S), g(T))
\end{aligned}$$

which concludes the proof.  $\square$

**Theorem 9.** *The map  $g$  is an involution.*

*Proof.* We use induction on size. The base case  $g^2(\bullet) = \bullet$  is trivial. For the induction step we have

$$\begin{aligned}
g^2(\rho(T_1, \dots, T_k)) &= g(\sigma(g(T_1), \dots, g(T_k))) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
&= \rho(g^2(T_1), \dots, g^2(T_k)) && \text{by Lemma 8} \\
&= \rho(T_1, \dots, T_k) && \text{by induction}
\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
g^2(\mu_i(S, T)) &= g(\nu_i(g(S), g(T))) && \text{by Definition 2} \\
&= \mu_i(g^2(S), g^2(T)) && \text{by Lemma 8} \\
&= \mu_i(S, T) && \text{by induction}
\end{aligned}$$

which concludes the proof.  $\square$

**Theorem 10.** *On  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees with  $n$  nodes, the pair of statistics  $(\text{root}, \text{open})$  has the same joint distribution as the pair  $(\text{open}, \text{root})$ . Equivalently,*

$$\sum_T x^{\text{root}(T)} y^{\text{open}(T)} = \sum_T x^{\text{open}(T)} y^{\text{root}(T)},$$

where the sum is over all  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees with  $n$  nodes.

*Proof.* Before embarking on the main part of the proof we state a few simple consequences of the definitions. If  $T_1, \dots, T_k, S$  and  $T$  are  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees, then

$$\text{open}(\rho(T_1, \dots, T_k)) = 1 + \text{open}(T_k), \quad (1)$$

$$\text{root}(\nu_i(S, T)) = i - 1 + \text{root}(S), \quad (2)$$

$$\text{root}(\sigma(T_1, \dots, T_k)) = 1 + \text{root}(T_k), \quad (3)$$

$$\text{open}(\mu_i(S, T)) = i - 1 + \text{open}(S), \quad (4)$$

where in (2) we assume that  $\text{root}(S) = 1$  and in (4) we assume that  $\text{open}(S) = 1$ .

Using induction we shall now prove that  $\text{root}(g(U)) = \text{open}(U)$  for each  $\beta(0, 1)$ -tree  $U$ . The base case is plain. For the induction step, assume that  $T_1, \dots, T_k, S$  and  $T$  are  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees,  $\text{root}(S) = 1$ , and that  $T$  is nontrivial. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{root}(g(\rho(T_1, \dots, T_k))) &= \text{root}(\sigma(g(T_1), \dots, g(T_k))) && \text{by Definition 2} \\ &= 1 + \text{root}(g(T_k)) && \text{by (3)} \\ &= 1 + \text{open}(T_k) && \text{by induction} \\ &= \text{open}(\rho(T_1, \dots, T_k)). && \text{by (1)} \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{root}(g(\mu_i(S, T))) &= \text{root}(\nu_i(g(S), g(T))) && \text{by Definition 2} \\ &= i - 1 + \text{root}(g(S)) && \text{by (2)} \\ &= i - 1 + \text{open}(S) && \text{by induction} \\ &= \text{open}(\mu_i(S, T)). && \text{by (4)} \end{aligned}$$

Since  $g$  is an involution it follows that  $\text{open}(g(T)) = \text{root}(T)$  as well, which concludes the proof.  $\square$

**Corollary 11.** *On  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees with  $n$  nodes, the pair of statistics  $(\text{root}, \text{rmod})$  has the same joint distribution as the pair  $(\text{rmod}, \text{root})$ . Equivalently,*

$$\sum_T x^{\text{root}(T)} y^{\text{rmod}(T)} = \sum_T x^{\text{rmod}(T)} y^{\text{root}(T)},$$

where both sums are over all  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees with  $n$  nodes.

*Proof.* This is a direct consequence of Lemma 3 and Theorem 10.  $\square$

**Definition 3.** Let  $C_n = \binom{2n}{n}/(n+1)$  denote the  $n$ th Catalan number. Define

$$a(n) = 2^{n-1} C_n.$$

This is sequence A003645 in OEIS [5].

By computing the number of trees fixed by  $g$ , for  $n \leq 12$ , we arrive at the following conjecture.

**Conjecture 12.** *For  $n > 1$ , the number of  $\beta(0, 1)$ -trees on  $n$  nodes fixed under  $g$  is  $a(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$ . This sequence starts 1, 1, 4, 20, 20, 112, 112, 672, 672, 4224, 4224,  $\dots$*

**Proposition 13** (Tutte, Koganov, Liskovets and Walsh). *The number of bicubic maps on  $2n$  vertices with one distinguished 1-colored face is  $a(n)$ .*

*Proof.* Koganov, Liskovets and Walsh [4, Proposition 3.1] showed that the number of rooted eulerian planar maps with  $n$  edges and a distinguished vertex is given by the formula  $a(n)$ . Tutte's well-known "trinity mapping" sends eulerian planar maps with  $n$  edges to bicubic maps with  $2n$  vertices. It is easy to see that under the same mapping vertices are sent to 1-colored faces.  $\square$

**Proposition 14.** *The number of  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees on  $n+1$  nodes with one distinguished excessive node is  $a(n)$ .*

*Proof.* This is a direct consequence of Propositions 4 and 13.  $\square$

In light of this last proposition we can reformulate Conjecture 12 as follows.

**Conjecture 15.** *There is a bijection between  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees on  $n$  nodes fixed under  $g$  and  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees on  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor + 1$  nodes with one distinguished excessive node.*

We close this paper by making two additional conjectures proving one of which would automatically prove the other, via the bijection described in Section 3. We have verified Conjecture 17 for  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees on at most 11 nodes.

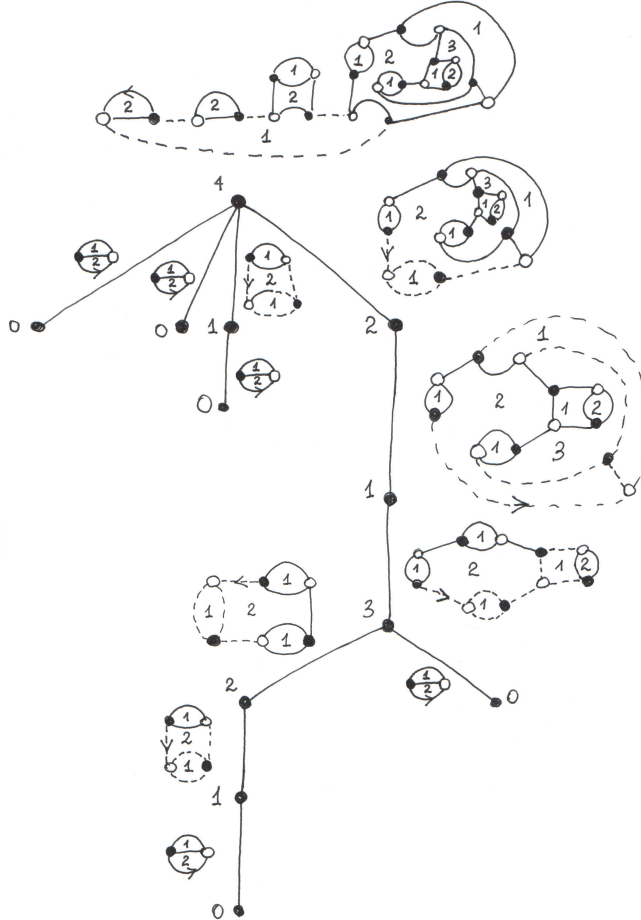
**Conjecture 16.** *The two pairs of statistics  $(f_{1r3}, f_{3r12})$  and  $(f_{3r2}, s_{1r3})$  are jointly equidistributed on bicubic maps.*

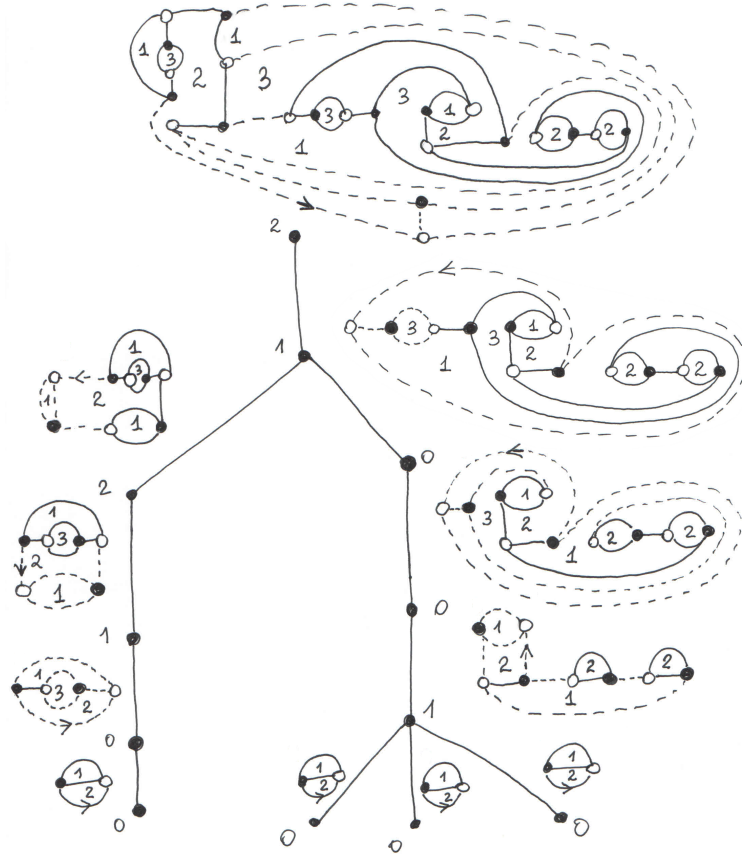
**Conjecture 17.** *The two pairs of statistics  $(\text{root}, \text{rzero})$  and  $(\text{rmod}, \text{sub})$  are jointly equidistributed on  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees.*

## 7. APPENDIX

Below are some examples of the map  $\psi$  from bicubic maps to  $\beta(0,1)$ -trees. The image of each large map at the top is the tree below it, and for each smaller map, its image is the subtree consisting in the edge next to it and all the edges below, with the root label adjusted if necessary.

Also, the two trees are the image of each other under the involution  $g$ .





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